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|----|---|----------------------|
| 1 | Who'll Bell the Cat? | James H. M. Erickson |
| 1 | Apprehensions of the Beginning Teacher | Robert A. Weber |
| 3 | The Monism of Art and Industrial Arts | Robert Steinen |
| 5 | Developing A Philosophy of Education | William F. Tierney |
| 8 | Book Reviews | |
| 12 | The Teachers College Journal Volume Index | |

THE OCTOBER COVER—The cover picture is a view of "Memory Lane" at Indiana State Teachers College. The Administration Building and the Language-Mathematics Building are shown on the left, with Parsons Hall in the background. —Photograph furnished through the courtesy of the Office of Information Services.



The *Teachers College Journal*

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Who'll Bell The Cat?

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All of us remember the story of the mice who decided that a predatory cat should be equipped with a bell in order to give advanced warning of his mousing expeditions. This fine decision ran into difficulty through an administrative problem: which mouse would tie the bell on the cat?

Teacher education faces a problem not without similarity to the above. Who'll "tie the bell" on our particular "cat"—the teacher candidate who is earning satisfactory grades, but is unacceptable because of personality or other factors? Entirely too often the "bell" is **not** tied, to the lasting detriment of our profession.

This situation exists because of a set of rather easily identified circumstances. It frequently begins with entrance requirements for admission into the school of education which are stated solely in terms of a minimum grade average, with little or no attention being given to the personality factors so vital to teaching success. Even a person of doubtful mental health can often gain admission without question.

Having been admitted, he is helped to remain in the program by this second circumstance: teachers of education courses rely entirely too much

on paper-and-pencil tests, which are largely indicative of the ability of the candidate to pass such tests—and very little else. Needless to say, the act of teaching (and success thereat) involves skills not so easily measured. It is eminently possible, for instance, for an inadequate personality to earn his "A" on an education quiz by listing (in order, of course) the famous "Seven Cardinal Objectives of Education." This "A" with other like grades undergoes at the end of the semester a magical transformation, and emerges as a somewhat inadvertent and highly illogical endorsement of the candidate's potential as a teacher. Thusly he progresses, from course to course, throughout the professional sequence leading to graduation.

If, somewhere along the way, the education professor seeks administrative help in eliminating the academically proficient but utterly inept student (assuming that his own unrealistic grading system bars true pre-professional evaluation) he often finds that such machinery simply does not exist. The college administration (rightly or wrongly) does not consider post-admission "cat belling" as part of its function. At best, it offers counseling

services to the student—and often the student cannot be compelled to accept these services, let alone the recommendation of the counselor.

In the light of this situation, which is regrettably common to many of our teacher training institutions, and because of its effect on the quality of American public education, these suggestions seem in order:

1. Entrance examinations to teacher education programs should be concerned with a **total** appraisal of the candidate, to include mental health and adequacy of personality, as well as previous academic achievement.

2. The grading procedures of instructors in schools of education should be oriented toward those factors more truly indicative of future teaching success. To do less is detrimental to the profession, and presents to the student an unrealistic picture of his probable future success.

3. Schools of education should have referral machinery in operation whereby the efficacy of a student's continuing on in the teacher education program can be reviewed and decided upon at any time during the professional sequence.

Teachers colleges and schools of education have a responsibility to the public and to the teaching profession itself. It is to provide not just "bodies" to meet the well-publicized shortage, but teachers of whom the nation (and their profession) can be proud. It would seem that a little careful and judicious "belling" is indicated—for the protection of all concerned.

Apprehensions of the Beginning Teacher

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The study reported herein was undertaken while the author was a staff member at San Jose State College.

The present paper is a report about the apprehensions and concerns a group of senior students in elementary education held immediately upon the

conclusion of their college training. All of the students had completed their training at the end of the first semester of the year and were, in a matter of one or two weeks, facing the problem of making the transition from a student teaching role to that of a regular teacher.

The writer had worked closely with these particular students during their senior year and had attained a high level of rapport. Because of this rapport, it is believed the data are quite valid and reveal rather clearly the students' concerns.

All of the students had completed

the prescribed courses leading to the baccalaureate degree and a valid California teaching credential. The minimal requirement in professional courses was the completion of the usual courses in psychology, method, history, and philosophy of education, etc. common to virtually all of the teacher-education institutions. In addition to the courses one would expect in the pre-professional slate, these students had also completed one semester of observation in the public schools during which time they engaged in helping with routine duties, child observation, teaching several lessons, etc. Following the semester of observation, they spent a semester in off-campus student teaching. During this semester they established residence where the student teaching assignment was and, for all intents and purposes, lived as a regular teacher. They were in the assigned school four days a week and returned to the college campus on the fifth day to participate in seminars, conferences, etc.

The prescribed pre-professional courses each of the students had completed totaled a minimum of forty-six semester units of credit. Most of the students, by utilizing electives, had credits in excess of the minimal requirement.

These details are related in order for the reader to familiarize himself with the over-all background of the student. The courses they had taken were rather comprehensive and in some cases were taught by professors recognized nationally. The public schools in which the students observed or undertook student teaching were recognized as being among the best in the particular section of California. In all probability the students had experienced a pre-service education that would compare rather favorably with that available in any other institution.

With this sort of preparation, then, in what respects did the students have misgivings about assuming a regular teaching role? In general, the concerns seem to embrace three major facets of teaching. The students' responses were usually in the form of

questions and are related in the interrogative form here because it is felt they are more expressive.

No attempt is made to rank the concerns in importance or in frequency of response. They are merely portrayed as the students related them and are presented for the reader's consideration.

Apprehensions as a professional person in the school district.

1. Will I know how to conduct myself as a professional person?
2. How much freedom will I have to teach as I want to? To experiment?
3. How will I get acquainted with all of the district policies I am expected to observe?
4. Can I call in specialized persons provided by the district to help me without appearing to be inadequate?
5. How do the salary schedule, yearly increments, and retirement plans work?
6. What is the extent of my obligation to render community service, like teaching Sunday School, community orchestra, community drives to raise money?
7. How liberal can I be in ordering books and supplies?
8. What can I expect during employment interviews?
9. What should a letter of application be like?
10. What kinds of teaching supplies will be available and how do I find out about them?

The second major area in which the concerns seemed to fall dealt with the teacher's immediate school environment and, more or less, repeated the concern evident in relation to the school district. The specific concerns so categorized were:

1. Will the school policies be such that I can function effectively?
2. What will my relationship with other staff members be? Will they like me? Will I like them?
3. Will the principal be a nice guy? Will he help me or will he leave me alone?
4. Will the principal understand my problems, particularly about books and supplies?

5. How much freedom will I be given to teach as I've been taught to teach?

6. How much subject matter am I expected to cover?

By far, the greatest number of concerns were related to classroom performance. Strangely, almost all of the course work completed dealt with classroom performance. The activities in which the group engaged, as revealed by daily diaries in student teaching, aimed at classroom proficiency. The kinds of things the students were apprehensive about in relation to actual teaching were:

Apprehensions as a classroom teacher:

1. Will I know how to group children in the best way?
2. How can I manage two or more groups?
3. Will I be able to identify children's needs and be able to meet them intelligently?
4. Do I know enough about English, mathematics, etc.?
5. What problems will I have in class control? Will I fail to maintain order?
6. What will I do the first day and week of school? How should I act? What should I expect the children to do?
7. What will the parents be like? Will I be able to meet their demands and requests?
8. Will I have trouble about grades? How can I give grades that are fair to all?
9. Will the children like me? If not, how can I find out why not?
10. Do I know enough about the legal responsibilities of the teacher? Is it likely I could be sued for something I did or didn't do?

As the list is perused, it appears that some of the apprehensions will disappear quite readily as soon as the students are on the job. It is felt that the students did not lack confidence particularly, but until they had successfully experienced teaching and faced the apprehensions, they were not really sure of their proficiencies. In the months following their advent into teaching, they learned most of the apprehensions expressed did not materialize in reality.

At the present, these people have been teaching for one year and have not encountered difficulty in terms of these fears—other fears, unsuspected during the pre-service period, did materialize, however.

What significance, if any, does this inventory of pre-service apprehensions have? It seems to point out some areas

in which the colleges might devote some emphasis, but, in the main, it seems the school system which employs beginning teachers may have some rather marked responsibilities. Perhaps, based upon these data, one of the most significant helps the new teacher can be given is in the form of a complete portrayal of the philosophy and policies of a

school and the system of which it is a part. The nature of the questions seems to also indicate the need at the outset for close supervision, assistance and for continuous reassurance. A feeling of belongingness, quickly established, may be the outstanding means of dispelling the apprehensions of the beginning teacher.

The Monism of Art and Industrial Arts

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That branch of education with which we are so familiar called Industrial Arts, has been defined in various ways. It might be well to review at the outset some of those definitions of purpose. Bosner and Mossman¹ say that industrial arts education is "a study of changes made by man in the forms of materials to increase their values, and of the problems of life related to these changes." Fales² defines industrial arts as "the broad study of the materials, organization, tools, processes, products, jobs, and human problems of industry." Wilber³ defines it as "those phases of general education which deal with industry—its organization, materials, occupations, processes, and products—and with the problems resulting from the industrial and technological nature of society." The Industrial Arts Policy and Planning Committee of the American Vocational Association says, "The purpose of industrial arts is to foster the development of a strong foundation in the skills, knowledges and attitudes regarding technical matters that are

needed for happy and effective living in America."⁴

All too often the attempt to define, to mark limits or boundaries, to describe or expound, leads to the establishment of a dogma, the assertion of a matter of opinion as if it were fact. The term dogma itself is usually associated with a doctrine of theology formally stated and authoritatively proclaimed by a church or sect. But in the world today we see other organizations than a particular church or sect proclaiming dogma, among these are certain scientific, political, social and most assuredly educational groups.

It is not necessarily inferred here that the above definitions lead to dogmatism in industrial arts education but it is pointed out that these definitions by leading figures in the field, dismiss in a quite cavalier fashion the second word in the educational title—ARTS. If one chooses to infer a dogmatism in industrial arts education as is commonly practiced today, the almost universal exclusion of the arts would be that dogmatism. Dogmatism of any sort is highly suspect, particularly in such a human field of endeavor as education, and should be on general principles discounted fully and at once. Too often

have apparently untouchable dogmatic principles been violated with great success. Too many times has the academic apple cart been over turned to uncover and energize some vastly successful new development.

The level of accomplishment of the several cultures of western man may be measured in many ways. One method is to examine a people's success in shaping the raw materials at hand into beautiful and useful objects. Throughout the history of man's efforts to develop better and better forms—of things both useful and ornamental—two factors have gone hand in hand, the technical and the aesthetic. Sometimes the technical problem has received first attention; at other times, the aesthetic has taken precedence. Many times both have been abused—through ignorance, forgetfulness, or under the pressure of fashion. When both factors have been handled with discretion, and the full faculties of human judgment have developed forms best adapted to the particular culture, when the design problem was a practical one of real functional or emotional need, when the effort was creative, great works of art developed. The more perfectly the two factors of the technical and the aesthetic have been fused together into a unified whole—a monism if you wish—the more precious do we hold the finished object whatever it might be, a vase, a desk, a piece of woven fabric.

Man has always regarded this marriage as one of his most elusive and desirable goals. The Egyptians, the classical peoples, the early Christians, the people of northern Europe of the Medieval Age, the restless men of the Renaissance, strove for such a goal within

¹Frederick C. Bosner and Louis C. Mossman, *Industrial Arts for Elementary Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1923) p. 5.

²Roy G. Fales, "Industrial Arts, Tentative Syllabus in Comprehensive General Shop" (Albany: University of the State of New York, 1940), p. 3 (mimeographed).

³Gordon O. Wilber, *Industrial Arts in General Education*, (Scranton: International Textbook Co., 1948) p. 2.

⁴The Industrial Arts Policy and Planning Committee of the American Vocational Association, "Industrial Arts in Education" (Leaflet, circa 1954), pp. 2-3.

their culture. Some succeeded more than others; within each culture there is to be seen the rise and fall of design with the rise and fall of the culture itself. But always the problem of this dualism, the technical and the aesthetic, must be resolved to a monism of perfection. They must be balanced off into a single, unified and successful form. Modern industry at least recognizes this principle, and under the sword of competition and the lash of sales, it is trying its best to offer to the public the best design that the market or the public can absorb. The industrial arts are concerned with the changes made by man in the forms of raw materials to increase their values, in the human problems of industry and in the creative problems of industry. This means that the industrial arts educator must be as familiar with the arts as he is with industry. As an educator, it is his duty; as an educated man, it will be to his pleasure.

The duty of the leaders in industrial arts teacher education in particular is plainly evident. The arts must once more assume their not only rightful but necessary position in the training of those who wish to interpret the industrial world to the youth of this land. The rank and file faculty of the industrial arts divisions of our teachers colleges must set their house in order. The student teachers are eager to learn; they come with open mind and with enthusiasm. All too often they bog down in a curriculum that is certainly not industrial, it is more kin to the handicraft, and it is far from artistic. The students must experience a program heavily reinforced with the arts; they must be encouraged to experiment with materials and with forms. Instructors in industrial arts at any level must not only be competent in their technical fields, but also in the arts. If we can combine the design laboratory, where perhaps the only mission would be to excite the imagination, and the technical shop into something reminiscent of the universal training of the Renaissance artist we may be able to produce an industrial arts teacher worthy of that dual name.

A mastery of design adequate to the responsibilities of an industrial arts

teacher will not be acquired by accident, or easily. The factors controlling form are too many, too varied for a limited contact to give us an understanding of them. They must be studied as they have been used by all peoples of all times, for they have controlled the endless variation of men's work.

Behind all design are certain constants, as imperative here and now as in classical Greece, medieval France, Italy of the Renaissance, or colonial America. When we understand the laws that control form, we can turn to our own problems of creativity and design with a reasonable degree of competence and confidence. The arts need frighten no one; they are simple in principle, are based upon and derived mainly from reason, are as old as the hills, and can be understood by everyone.

A work of art is the result of man's desire to express his reactions to life in terms of ideas, feelings, and the materials and tools with which he works. It is the artist's job to introduce organization into nature and experience as well. This desire for organization or order serves both decorative and functional purposes in all the arts, call them what you will, fine, minor, or industrial, they are all one. Art or design structure is essential to all types of art and to all mediums of expression. Order is achieved by arranging the elements of design in a meaningful manner. These elements consist of line, color, form, and texture. They are structural elements and are similar to the lumber, cement, and bricks the builder uses to construct a house. They comprise part of the tool kit of the designer. Order and understanding in design are achieved by arranging these elements of design and are the means of creating functional objects of beauty. They function as an aid to better, more complete, and a more exact expression of an idea.

The minor problems of design in the industrial arts is the organization of these elements of structure with feeling or knowledge into a work of art compatible with the materials and tools in use. The major problem of design in the industrial arts divisions of our teachers colleges is an attitude of mind and an

understanding of the monism of art or design and the industrial arts.

To a small degree, the desired goal of monism between art and the industrial arts, has been achieved in some of the industrial arts divisions of our teachers colleges. Within the framework allowable by a most inadequate number of semester hours of time three broad areas of study are lightly and briefly investigated. First is the study of the elements of design and the theory behind their use. Second is the application of the theory to its use in designing useful and beautiful objects in three dimensions. Third, and far from being universal in the teachers colleges, but of long and recognized practice in the professional arts schools, is a course in experimental design where a student is allowed to experiment freely with materials and forms in order to heighten his aesthetic sense.

There are sound reasons for these courses that exist only to a slight degree in our teacher training institutions. The object of utility must not only work well—made of the finest materials and constructed in the skillful manner—but its outward appearance must be the most pleasing imaginable. The design structure of the piece, the organization of line, form, color, and texture must be handled in the most delicate and discriminating manner before any craftsman worth his salt would proudly call the piece his own. When this truly creative goal has been reached we pass beyond the world of the craftsman and enter into the world of the artist. Such should be the goal of the educator who claims as his specialty the industrial arts. It might do us all well to review regularly the sage words of Albrecht Durer² who once wrote, "It is ordained that never shall any man be able out of his own thoughts to make a beautiful figure, unless by much study he hath stored his mind."

For close to five hundred years man

²Albrecht Durer, 1471-1528, artist, draughtsman and engraver; among many great accomplishments designed and cut the illustrative wood blocks for the Gutenberg Bible.

has known that this monism between production techniques and artistic or design qualities in a given object has existed as an organic whole necessary to quality in the things we make. One must admit that many times man has lost sight of this law, one need only look about at the monstrous houses, furniture, the accouterments of everyday life that we have inherited from our fathers or that we have made ourselves to realize how sadly we have failed in this understanding. Industrial arts education has failed in this respect along with other so called specialized fields of education. If we desire to perpetuate a mediocrity we can go on our unthinking way and eventually disappear into the limbo where other inflexible institutions of man have been relegated.

The industrial arts are being smothered by technical gods and our young people are being judged only by how well they cut a joint or finish a piece of wood. They are, by virtue of a failure on the part of their teachers and the somniferous practices of the industrial arts program itself being denied the pleasures of a creative experience in

the full meaning of the term and the joys of the opportunity to produce a superior form that the individual and culture is capable of producing. The creative effort need only be placed in a favorable environment in order to flower. Industrial arts education is denying youth this climate, it must not, it cannot afford to do this disfavor to our youth.

The technical mastery of the tool can never be the goal or the outcome of industrial arts education. This state is but a means to an end. The end has many facets, the interaction of needs and materials, the understanding of human needs, the realization of the satisfactions gained through the act of creation, the appreciation of beautiful form and color relations, an understanding of the great creative effort of man to produce better things in every way, to understand the philosophy of change and improvement and how a system of education can achieve these goals.

To help our nation and its people take one very small step toward these goals, the industrial arts area of our educational effort can help if it will. It

can help if it will understand with mind and heart the great and important role of the arts in industrial arts, and after understanding, to do something constructive about it. Perhaps some apple carts may be turned over, but change and progress has never been a painless procedure. The industrial arts in the past fifteen years has made no significant contribution to itself or the education of our youth. It has been existing in its "golden age" of techniques. This fifteen year period might well be called an age of ease and tranquility, also an age of mediocrity because of its neglect of the arts. But to stand still is not the nature of man. The effervescent Winston Churchill has described this drive in these words: "Man has never sought tranquility alone. His nature drives him forward to fortunes which are different from those which it is in his power to pause and enjoy."

The industrial arts will, if it so desires, move on to new conquests, to new service to education only if it can grasp the significance of the organic role of the arts.

Developing A Philosophy of Education

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Every teacher needs to develop a philosophy of education to enable him to give direction to his teaching, to know where the emphasis should be placed, and to recognize where improvements are needed. He needs to know why things are taught as well as how and when they are best taught. Prior to the development of a sound philosophy of education, he must develop some preliminary concepts relative to the nature of society, the relation of societal structure to the school, and the function of education in present day society. He must be aware of the socio-economic factors affecting education and the inter-relation of democratic traditions. In addition to these, a thorough knowl-

edge of the nature of the individual, his needs, and the principles of learning precede the development of a functional educational philosophy.

PRELIMINARY CONCEPTS

Society and the School. A society in order to continue to exist must provide the means of transmitting its cultural heritage. Human beings do not inherit any knowledge but merely the capacity to learn. All human behavior must be learned. Relative to this Dewey (4, pp. 2-3) states that:

With the renewal of physical existence goes, in the case of human beings, the re-creation of beliefs, hopes, ideals,

happiness, misery, and practices. The continuity of any experience, through the social group, is a literal fact. Education, in its broadest sense, is the means of this social continuity of life. . . .

The primary ineluctable facts of birth and death of each one of the constituent members in a social group determine the necessity of education. . . . With the growth of civilization, the gap between the original capacities of the immature and the standards and customs of the elders increases. . . . Beings who are born not only unaware of, but indifferent to, the aims and habits of the social group have to be rendered cognizant of them and actively interested. Education, and education alone, spans the gap.

When the nature of society was simple, the family was able to perform all the necessary functions of educating the new members. As society became more complex the need for education increased and institutions were established to aid in introducing and establishing the desired social patterns. The church and the school are the predom-

inating institutions outside the home performing the educational function. The school is an extension of the home.

Function of Education. The function of education is to transmit and improve the cultural heritage of the society in which it operates. Mere transmission is not enough if progress is to be maintained. Educators have the social responsibility to assist in the improvement of the culture. Beard (2, p. 58) points this out as follows:

... Their task is not limited to preserving and passing on a heritage of knowledge and treasured experience; they must take account of advancing knowledge, add to it when they can, sift and create as well as accumulate.

When this dual nature of the function of education is realized the educational process takes on a greater significance, and the role of educators becomes increasingly important.

Socio-Economic Factors. American society is extremely dynamic in nature. In the relatively short history of the country vast socio-economic changes have transpired. From an agrarian culture with small local manufacturing of a household nature, a complex industrial system of a highly specialized character has developed. In agriculture, large farms with modern labor saving machinery utilizing the one crop system extensively have replaced the small farms with their general farming methods and concomitant laborious tasks. In industry large corporations using mass production methods have replaced the local craftsman almost entirely. Regarding economic change, Beard (2, pp. 42-43) states:

During the long period in which educational philosophy and the public schools were taking form and developing, profound changes were occurring in industrial organization and procedure—in that world of economic opportunities for which the schools were training millions of pupils annually. In the production of staple commodities, the small local plant individually or corporately owned, and operated by a small number of employees, gave way to the gigantic plant or system of plants corporately owned and employing thousands of workers. By 1930 corporations owned and controlled approximate-

ly 78 percent of American business wealth, and two hundred of the largest corporations owned and controlled about 38 percent of all business wealth. In substance this corporate development made a revolution in the types of industrial opportunities and practices prevailing when public education was established. It marked a large-scale transfer of individual ownership from real property to paper, the creation of heavy fiduciary obligations, a thoroughgoing alteration in the working relations of employers and employees, and the imposition of new restraints on possibilities of rising into the ownership and managements of real property.

From a relatively simple rural life Americans have changed to a complex urban form of living in an industrial setting with all of its technological advances. Forms of communication and modes of transportation, to say nothing of the numerous types of labor saving machinery and devices of the home and factory, have had a serious impact on the American way of life.

Technology and Industry. Modern technology and the structure of American industry have brought about tremendous changes in the American way of life. Today much less human energy is expended in providing the essentials of food, clothing and shelter. The modern American home presents a striking contrast with one in colonial times.

Providing food and shelter was a fulltime occupation for the male members of society, while food preparation, the making and mending of clothing, and the keeping of the homes occupied practically all the hours of the day and some of the night for the female members. Clearing and tilling the soil by hand with the aid of animal drawn farming tools such as plows and harrows and cultivators was an arduous task to say the least. Harvesting of the crops was still another laborious and time consuming pursuit for all members of the family.

Providing fuel for cooking and heating the homes was another chore. Wood, which had to be hand cut and split, was the chief source of fuel. Water for drinking, cooking, and washing had to be hauled by hand from the wells. Yarn was

spun by hand in the homes for the making of fabric which was then woven or knit by hand.

In 1940, a normal pre-war year, the total labor force numbered 52,020,023 (5, p. 185). Of this number 5,302,744 (5, p. 185) or slightly more than ten percent were employed as farmers or farm managers. With the aid of modern farm machinery this small percentage of the labor force was able to produce all the food needs for this country with a substantial surplus to spare. Another three percent or 1,441,874 (5, p. 760) were employed in the food industry and kindred products, making a total of thirteen percent to take care of the production, and preservation of the country's food needs.

In the matter of clothing 1,233,431 (5, p. 761) persons were employed in 1940 in the manufacture of textile mill products. Another 1,081,844 (5, p. 761) produced all the apparel and related products. This makes a total of 2,315,275 or between four and five percent of the labor force to produce and finish the clothing for everybody in the country.

In 1948 the production of electrical energy amounted to 336,809,000,000 kilowatt hours (5, p. 471). In one year alone, 1947, the total value of all electrical appliances produced was \$548,337,000 (5, p. 817). The value of domestic and commercial sewing machines was \$63,643,000; vacuum cleaners produced were valued at \$133,107,000; and the value of washing machines and other domestic laundry equipment was \$433,955,000 (5, p. 816).

The value of passenger cars produced in 1947 reached the total of \$4,080,311,000; trucks, motor coaches, etc. \$1,864,689; and tractors \$744,272,000 (5, p. 816). By 1950 the total number of registered motor vehicles had passed the fifty million mark, ten million of these being trucks and motor coaches.

In the field of communication, the value of household radios, television sets, radio phonographs, and record players produced in 1947 amounted to

\$810,066,000 (5, p. 817). In 1949 there were 40,655,000 telephones (5, p. 454) with an estimated total of 147,000,000 miles of wire.

The above facts are but a few of the numerous ones which might be cited to illustrate the extent of modern technology and the productive capacity of American industry. Modern industry with its mass production methods has such a tremendous effect on modern society that it is the dominating influence in the American economic and social structure.

DEMOCRATIC TRADITIONS AND EDUCATION

Traditionally democracy has recognized the importance of the individual and his value to society. It places its faith in the intelligence of the common man by providing for self-government through representation. The function of education in a democracy is to assist individuals through the use of democratic procedures to develop their potentialities to the optimum point for effective and efficient citizenship, irrespective of race, creed, intelligence level, and social or economic status.

The Individual. In a democracy the individual is considered as an end rather than a means. The state exists to serve individuals rather than to control them as is the case under totalitarian forms of government. Public educational institutions must be governed by similar concepts in relations with students. Relative to the community's responsibility to the individual, Bode (3, p. 80) states that:

The primary obligation of a democratic community to its members is to provide for each the opportunity to share in the common life according to interest and capacity.

Alberty (1, p. 54) states that the role of the secondary school is:

To help each student to discover and extend his interests, and abilities, to meet his needs, and weave them into a consistent unified everchanging design for living.

It is the duty of educators to assist individuals in discovering and extending

their interests and abilities to meet their real needs in coping with their environment as members of society and future citizens of the nation.

Individual Rights and Responsibilities.

In a democracy the individual is guaranteed certain rights such as the freedom to worship as he chooses, the freedom of speech, and the right to assemble peaceably. In the exercise of these rights the individual has the responsibility to see to it that this does not interfere with the rights of other members of society. Educators have the responsibility of recognizing and respecting the rights of all individuals and the obligation of assisting students in the development of a sense of responsibility toward other members of society.

Equality. Democracy is based on the concept that all men are created equal and have certain inalienable rights including life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. This presupposes that there shall be no legally established classes, that individuals will be free to move from one economic status to another, and that there shall be no discrimination due to race or creed. Relative to this Alberty (1, p. 52) states that:

Since democracy calls for the optimal development of all individuals, the doors of economic and social opportunity must be open. There must be no discrimination against races, classes, or creeds.

Education must offer equal educational opportunities for all if the school is to meet the democratic ideal of equal opportunity for all individuals. Any differential must be based only on the individual capacity to learn or to make use of the opportunity. The school should provide an environment adequate to meet the needs of students and conducive to the optimal development of their abilities.

THE NATURE OF THE INDIVIDUAL

A knowledge of the individual nature of mankind and the nature of the learning process are fundamental elements in the development of an educational program. The psychological, physiological, and social needs of individuals must be considered. Principles of learning

relating to motivation, assimilation, and retention must be understood.

Psychological Needs. The satisfaction of the individual's psychological needs are important in his educational development. Efficient learning takes place only when the student is ready to learn. The need of obtaining social approval, the need for experiencing success, the need of developing self-confidence, the need of satisfying curiosity, the need of the opportunity for self-expression, and the need for recreation are all psychological needs which merit attention of educators. They can be utilized as motivating forces in the learning process.

Physiological Needs. The need for physical activity and manipulation have long been recognized as a means of growth and learning. For the child, activity is the primary means of physical growth and mental development. As the child grows this biological drive should be met with appropriate materials and the proper guidance. Dewey (4, p. 217) makes the following observation concerning the value of activity in relation to learning:

When education, under the influence of a scholastic conception of knowledge which ignores everything but scientifically formulated facts and truths, fails to recognize that primary or initial subject matter always exists as matter of an active doing, involving the use of the body and the handling of material, the subject matter of instruction is isolated from the needs and purposes of the learner, and so becomes just a something to be memorized and reproduced upon demand.

Educators should take advantage of the natural physiological drives in guiding educational experiences.

Social and Economic Needs. Social needs may be either psychological or physiological or a combination of both. The need for companionship or fellowship is a strong human drive. The need of fitting in with a group, and obtaining their approval is one of the most important factors of success. The economic need for security stimulates the further need of earning a living and develops vocational interests. This drive appears earlier than many adults realize

and is a problem with which many secondary school pupils are vitally concerned.

Principles of Learning. Learning is a complex process which cannot be explained in terms of any one single reaction. Many variable factors which differ in respect to each individual affect the learning process. The motivating factors such as needs, goals, and interest are present or can be stimulated to various degrees in different persons. The capacity to learn and rate of learning also vary with different persons. The approach to learning also differs with the individual concerned. Some people begin at the beginning and work forward in logical sequence; others start

at various stages of a problem and work in both directions; while others start with an answer and look for the causes or reasons which substantiate it. In the matter of transfer, some individuals are able to make their own generalizations and are capable of transferring learning in relation to one problem or situation to similar problems while others do not readily see similarities or contrasts until they are pointed out by someone else.

In light of these differences, it is apparent that educators need to utilize a variety of methods in dealing with group instruction and different methods with different students on an individual basis.

powang has a variety of functions, offers advice on almost every projected activity and on the weather, and maintains contact with extranatural forces."

On page 7 there appears the word "agate." This is a word that is not clearly related to anthropology nor does it have an exclusively anthropological connotation. The definition reads, "A quartz, with colors usually in bands, which was believed in various cultures to have certain beneficial properties. Jews used agate to avoid falling and Arabs to improve the blood. In medieval times it was an anti-snake medicine. North American Indians used it to make implements of various kinds. It is still a symbol of good health and long life."

The book contains 579 pages of definitions. There is an average of fifteen definitions per page, giving between 7,500 and 8,000 definitions in all. It is printed in easy-to-read type and is produced on a good quality of paper. This work is a worthwhile addition to the body of anthropological publications.

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Economic Factors in the Growth of Russia. By Nicholas L. Fr.-Chirovsky, New York, Philosophical Library, 1957, pp. 178 + xv. \$3.75.

The author, an Assistant Professor of Economics at Seton Hall University,

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traces and evaluates the role of economic forces in the history of Russia. While Professor Chirovsky emphatically stipulates in his introduction that economic determinism, construed either broadly or narrowly, does not explain the growth of the Russian nation prior to the revolutions of the second decade of the 20th century, the reader received quite the opposite impression during the reading of the book.

The book is divided into three parts. Part One is devoted to an analysis of "Economic Factors Building the National Psychology," Part Two is concerned with "Economic Factors Impelling Territorial Expansion," and Part Three concludes with an examination of "Economic Doctrine Masking the National Ambitions."

The major non-economic force which Chirovsky credits with contributing to Russia's growth is the aggressive, imperialistic psychology that he alleges was the legacy of the early Mongolian conquerors.

This book is a devastating indictment of Russia and its leaders, past and present. An unpleasant picture is painted of the ruthlessness, avarice, and deceitfulness of the Russians. Chirovsky maintains that these are inherent traits and that Russia's history of deception, broken promises, and brutal aggression should be remembered when the United

Book Reviews

A Dictionary of Anthropology. By Charles Minick. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956, pp. 579. \$10.00.

To "review" a dictionary of any type poses certain difficulties. One is reminded of the little girl who read completely through a standard dictionary and then reported, "The vocabulary is marvelous but the plot is terrible."

The volume under consideration is an excellent piece of work. It is complete and accurate. Not only is the terminology of anthropology adequately listed and defined, but many other words related to this discipline are also listed and defined. So far as this reviewer is concerned, both the fields of physical and cultural anthropology are quite extensively covered. The reviewer has deliberately avoided the expression "completely covered." Anthropology is an emerging science and its vocabulary is still in process of "flux and flow." Who could know if a single volume has completely covered the field?

Two examples chosen at random will suffice to indicate the diversity of the coverage of this work referred to above. On page 405 there appears the word "powang." This is clearly a word that has a direct and exclusively anthropological connotation. The definition reads, "A Malay expert in magic. The

States attempts to deal with the Soviet Union in the future.

History presents many cases of economic imperialism of a relatively lenient character. It seems, however, that this particular instance developed quite differently in the case of Russia. The Mongol psychic elements, by merging with other Oriental psychological faculties and the Slavic psychology of a part of the medieval Muscovites, originated the ruthlessness and cruelty of Russian imperialism. Economic aspects rather intensified those features and made the Russian political growth a kind of plunder of all the neighboring countries, as well as of distant lands which became victims of that Russian imperial expansion. An economic exploitation of the subjugated countries and their resources always accompanied the political process of Russian conquests.¹

The earliest villains in this volume of intrigue and brutality were the dukes of Moscow during the years of the Mongolian occupation of Eastern Europe. The dukes had been relatively unimportant princes prior to the Mongolian invasion. However, they reacted differently than other Russian dukes to the Mongolian rule. The Muscovites were more submissive than the Slavic dukes and, in time, became the tribute collectors and the confidants of the Mongols. In these capacities the dukes of Moscow were able to build their own strength and influence while at the same time their Russian rivals were weakened and/or destroyed. When the strength of the Mongols began to wane, the Muscovites ousted their erstwhile rulers and proceeded on their campaign of conquest and subjugation of neighboring lands, eventually including portions of Asia from which their Mongolian conqueror-benefactor had come.

The main theme of the book is stated on page 33 when Chirovsky states:

... despite certain slow progress, Russian economy remained throughout the centuries backward and inefficient. Nevertheless, growing population, growing state organization, growing military power, and the growing nation indispensably required a continuous growth of resources and a rapid progress in their utilization and productivity as a material foundation of that national growth. The cleavage between the slow

economic development and the rapid political growth was repaired by the Russians by means of imperialist wars and economic exploitation of the conquered peoples and lands.

The nine chapters in Part Two disclose the specific pressures that Chirovsky believes have encouraged first the Muscovite and later the Russian expansion. These factors, almost entirely economic, include the desire to obtain sea-ports on the Baltic, Black and Caspian Seas and the all-important gateway to the Mediterranean Sea, Istanbul. The primary purpose for the ports, he contends, was to enable Russia to control trade or to extend trade with lands to the south and west. In addition, Chirovsky notes the necessity of annexing the Ukraine, the most productive agricultural area of Eastern Europe, in order to provide food for home consumption and also to provide the major pre-Soviet item of export. Siberia's attraction is held to be her promise of providing large quantities of another popular item of Russian export, furs.

Russian territorial expansion to the southeast had its motivation, according to Chirovsky, in the desire of the Russians to control and expand their Oriental trade with Afghanistan, India and China. The single instance of territorial expansion which Chirovsky does not attribute to economic factors was the annexation of Byeloruthenia and the partition of Poland. The author contends, however, that there was indirect economic pressure involved. The domination of these territories brought the Baltic countries and the Ukraine geographically closer to Moscow and enabled a more efficient control of the territories as well as bringing the Empire closer to the West and its trade.

On the whole this book is well-documented, however in some instances references consist largely or entirely of secondary sources. In at least one instance, this leads to an incorrect statement. For example, on page 113 in referring to the Russian colonization of Northern California, Chirovsky cites two general American Economic History texts, which are in error. Russia's California penetration was not pursued "by reason of the prospective hide and fur

trade." It was, rather, an attempt to grow and trade for foodstuffs in order to feed the Russian colony in Alaska which was without means to provide for its own subsistence and was too far from Russian source of supply.²

The reviewer recommends this short book as one that is highly readable and capable of maintaining the interest of the reader be he a scholar of Russian History or Economics or completely unversed in the field. There are two other objections, in addition to that mentioned above, that the reviewer would like to register against the book. First, the reader of this book, confronted with a plethora of former national states, peoples, and tribes will probably have the same annoyed reaction of this reviewer when he discovers that there is not appended to the book a map or maps to locate these many important forces in Russian history.

The final objection which the reviewer has to this book is a more substantial one than the preceding objections. Chirovsky states on page 135:

The more particularly and deeply a student of Russian history analyzes the past of the Russian people, the less can he resist the impression that the Communist Revolution of 1917 actually affected the established trends of the Russian national-ideology very insignificantly.

The passage has baffled the reviewer. Certainly International Communism is the offspring of Moscow and one cannot deny that its sights are far more expanded than anything even the most ambitious of the earlier Russian leaders contemplated. In addition, economics is far more thoroughly intertwined in the thinking and the policies of the present Russian leaders than their predecessors. How can one distinguish between the Soviet Political and Economic goals and policies in a state in which the state owns and operates all but the most insignificant of the means of production and the institutions which perform the distribution of the goods and services?

²See Adele Ogden's *Sea Otter Trade*, University of California Press or the unpublished doctoral dissertation of Sherman F. Dallas on *The Hide and Tallow Trade of Alta California, 1820-1847*, Indiana University.

¹Page xiv.

Furthermore, the leaders of the U.S.S.R. are not merely interested in extended military and political conquest. Another goal is to supplant the existing economic systems and to substitute in their place, State or Centralist Socialist. One need only look to the more recent Soviet satellites for proof of this statement.

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Here is Haiti, By Ruth Danenhower Wilson. New York, N. Y.: Philosophical Library Inc., 1957, pp. 204, \$3.50.

Here is Haiti is written "with the understanding of a trained sociologist and the easy style of an experienced writer" who had the assistance of American and Haitian officials and UNESCO and Point IV representatives in gathering data. This, however, does not blunt her own observations and insights—immediate and historical. She writes in the best ethnological tradition taking her reader through the capital city, the country side, and Haitian history with glimpses at cock fights, slum squalor, rural family life, racial intermixture, and voodoo. In fact, the reader may be so beguiled by the author's "easy style" that he may overlook sociological insights encrusted by vivid description!

The author hoped that her "experiences may help other visitors to understand and to appreciate the enchantment" of Haiti. She weaves the threads of history into this tapestry of enchantment. (History is also disenchanting!) There are but five to ten percent of Haitians in the elite category (upper class)—affranchis, old families; the newly rich; and the intellectuals. She notes that this elite attempts to control Haitian government and finds "only a small but rapidly growing middle class" between the elite and the great mass of peasants. The author does not play down the misery and the squalor of the capital's slum and that "Haitian farmers have not yet learned the use of the wheel, the plow nor of draft animals" (p. 119). She finds that "the gulf between the elite and the peasants

has a deeper origin than differences of income, education and background. . . ." True, some of the elite are concerned about the peasant. But the author asks the crucial question, "What is likely to be the future of the middle class in a country where great industrialization is improbable, since Haiti has few rich deposits of oil, bauxite or other minerals, no great resource except agriculture?" One cannot help seeing Haiti as a population bomb—modern science cutting the death rate but unable to increase food production sufficiently or to decrease infant production. One cannot help seeing Haiti as just what Karl Marx ordered. The author admits that "there has been plenty of Communist pressure put upon Haitians and at times it has succeeded in making converts among prominent intellectuals. But this influence is in general recognized and resisted." She notes that Guatemala not Haiti is the bearer of the red flag in the Caribbean. The Communists failed in Guatemala because they could not infiltrate the church and the army. The author might have given us some information about the military structure and the Haitian politics!

In an age when Americans are attempting to buy friends and influence people abroad, the author highlights the fact that we stumble over our present and our past in dealing with members of the community of nations.

In the present—"The American movies shown in Port-au-Prince did not depict many Americans with what Haitians consider culture."

In the past—nineteen years of U.S. Marine occupation, finally ended by President Roosevelt. Under this occupation, the Haitian peasant was conscripted for road work and in many cases separated from his family. Under this occupation, the Haitian educational system with its roots in France was made "practical." This led to student strikes and student imprisonment.

There is much in this book that demands reading and rereading!

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Improving Teacher Education through Inter-College Cooperation. By George E. Hill, Ernest Mahan, John E. Jacobs, Vaud A. Travis, Graham Pogue, C. H. Allen, and L. Gordon Stone. Edited by George E. Hill and E. F. Potthoff. Dubuque, Iowa, William C. Brown Company, 1956, pp. 250 vii.

In the area of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools there are seventy-five colleges which either call themselves "teachers colleges" or hold membership in the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

In the winter of 1947-48 an invitation was issued to these teachers colleges to participate in a joint program for the improvement of teacher education. This invitation came from the Committee on Teacher Education which was a part of the Association's Commission on Research and Service. The response was sufficient to set up the project which has extended for the past nine years and has included nine summer workshops and ten conferences. In all these activities the committee had one central purpose in mind—to assist the member college to improve its own program through the added impetus gained by working with other like minded institutions.

Thirty-nine colleges in fourteen states have participated in this North Central Association study for one or more years. The annual summer workshops, of four weeks duration, have been perhaps a central element in the inter-college program of cooperation.

One of the conditions for joining the project was a willingness and ability for the college to send at least one key staff member to the summer workshop to participate in the leadership training. The participants were expected to return to their colleges to exercise leadership in stimulating and directing institutional studies there in cooperation with other colleges in the project. The benefits to each of the colleges from the workshops as participation are evident.

A second product of the project has

been the "Teacher Education Bulletin," a monthly "house organ" containing news of local campus activities, editorials, book reviews, announcements and the like.

From time to time the project has sponsored each of ten regional conferences on higher education. The purpose of the conferences has been to afford an opportunity for faculties from a number of colleges to come together to discuss common problems and to emphasize some of the more significant and pressing issues of higher education in the United States.

A staff member known as a co-ordinator visited each participating college annually with the purpose of encouraging, stimulating and facilitating the efforts of the local faculty. Since he also visited a number of other colleges, the co-ordinator brought to each college the results of faculty work in other institutions. He also relayed information to the committee about work in other colleges which would presumably be helpful in making future plans and policies.

Publications from the project and the monthly packet service, an assembled packet of publications, committee reports, new course or degree patterns, course outlines and similar materials, helped to keep the participating colleges informed concerning developments in the other colleges.

Other benefits include the resource files of the project which bring together over 3,000 items on all aspects of college work—general education programs and courses, student personnel materials, materials on professional education, improvement of instruction, college organization and administration, faculty, studies and the like. The library of the project is also available to the participating colleges.

This publication then, is the first printed report of the above described project. It is an abundant source of valuable information for any individual or any institution interested and/or involved in the process of self-evaluation and self improvement.

The volume includes in this order, chapters specifically devoted to the faculty in teacher education, the improvement of general education, improving instruction, improving the professional education of teachers, improving student personnel services and the development of fifth year in-service programs for teachers. In addition, the first and last chapters of the book describe the project and present a summary and forecast for future activities. Each of the chapters was prepared individually by one or more of the authors. The bibliography and appendices provide resource information and materials.

Values of workshops and extensive cooperation efforts in research, and the developing of new ideas and procedures are evident for each of the participants in such projects. When these values are shared by such summaries, reports and evaluations of such activities, all others of us who were not participants may profit from these experiences. Of such value is this publication.

The authors have stated that because of the heterogeneity of effort toward self-improvement it is both difficult and hazardous to draw firm conclusions from resulting activities. However, it is evident that despite the apparent diversity of such efforts there are some elements which appear to be common in all good teaching.

As one reads the account of the development of thought on these problems, it becomes evident that many problems are far from solution. It is encouraging to find that instead of running away from these issues, a large group of conscientious, hard-working people are joining together in an honest effort to arrive at better solutions. Certainly these participating colleges have made a strong start in the right direction through this particular project.

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Working With Children in Science

by Clark Hubler, Boston, Massachusetts:
Houghton Mifflin Company, 1957, pp.
425 viii, \$5.50.

Many an elementary teacher faces the prospect of teaching science with uncertainty and is highly skeptical of her ability to do justice to this area of learning. Such teachers should welcome heartily **Working With Children in Science**. The text is a basically sound and is an authoritative treatment of the teaching of Elementary Science.

The book can be readily divided into three parts. The first five chapters deal with the philosophy of teaching science, while chapters six and seven discuss materials of instruction and commercial supplies and equipment. Chapters eight to thirteen, inclusive, deal with specific phases of science as follows: Interpreting the Sky; Chemical Changes; The Rocks and Soil of the Earth's Surface; Experiences with Living Things; Experimenting with Magnetism and Electricity; and Understanding Air and the Weather. The final chapter is entitled, A Variety of Experiences in Science, and presents some excellent suggestions for experiments.

Experience has shown clearly that teachers prefer and profit most from that kind of assistance which fills their immediate need in the classroom. This book is especially rich in that kind of assistance. Incorporated with the material in the first five chapters are numerous teaching experiences which clearly illustrate the point under discussion. According to the author all teaching illustrations cited are authentic and were derived from his own experiences as a teacher or from other members of the teaching profession. All of the experiences cited should be of much value to a teacher of elementary science.

Among the first five chapters, number five is of special interest and value to the elementary teacher in the average grade school. This will be especially true where the teacher is required to teach all subject matter fields. Chapter five deals with Science and Related Learnings. Incorporated are methods

whereby science can be used to stimulate the reading program, the language arts, the fine and practical arts, the health program, mathematics and the social studies. The author shows that a well-organized science unit can be developed which will include and maintain a balanced emphasis and desirable relationships with all the areas of learning. True scientific learning is a democratic procedure where many pupils cooperate in solving common problems and such problems usually involve more than science.

In the chapters dealing with methods

of teaching the various phases of science, the author has contributed his most fruitful work. General description has been held to a minimum. The why and the how have received major emphasis. Each chapter contains many questions asked and those likely to be asked by children. Methods of procedure in answering these questions are suggested and discussed. It is in these chapters that the teacher will find a wealth of teaching aids and suggestions whereby she can use her own ingenuity.

The text has an abundance of excellent photographs of children at work

performing scientific experiments. Numerous drawings will help the teacher in preparing apparatus for experiments. Since most of the material needed for building the apparatus is not costly and much of it can be secured in the home, the teacher will welcome these aids.

At the end of each chapter in the text is a useful study guide. There are included, also, topical references which the teacher can use to advantage.

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The Teachers College Journal

VOLUME INDEX

Volume XXVIII, October, 1956 — May, 1957 Nos. 1-6

Title Index

- Abstracts of Theses, November, 1956, No. 2, pp. 28-32.
- "A Community Unit for the Physically Handicapped," Tony Milazzo, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 85-86.
- "An Analysis of Certain Acting Editions and Promptbooks of Plays by Dion Boucicault," Gladys M. Rohrig, November, 1956, No. 2, p. 23.
- "An Evaluation of Some Efforts to Improve the Social Adjustment of a Few Selected Second Grade Pupils," Merle E. Bonney and Mary Glenn Peery, November, 1956, No. 2, pp. 16-19.
- "A Study of School Board In-Service Training Techniques," Harley Lautenschlager, November, 1956, No. 2, pp. 24-26.
- Book Reviews, October, 1956, No. 1, pp. 11-12; November, 1956, No. 2, p. 32; January, 1957, No. 4, pp. 61-62; May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 111-114.
- "Characteristics of an Effective Learning Situation," Herbert J. Klausmeier, October, 1956, No. 1, pp. 2-6.
- "Chemistry and Physics—One Class," Galen W. Bull, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 89-90.
- "College and University Counseling," William Howard (Panel Reports—Guidance Conference), December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 38-39.
- "Community Services and Occupational Information," Lee E. Isaacson (Panel Reports—Guidance Conference), December, 1956, No. 3, p. 42.
- "Conference Summary," Edward S. Bordin (Guidance Conference), December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 42-43.
- "Council on Personnel Relations and Personnel Welfare," Frances Williams, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 79-80.
- "Counselor Training and Research," Joseph Hollis (Panel Reports—Guidance Conference), December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 39-40.
- "Factors Influencing Vocational Choice," Edward S. Bordin (Guidance Conference), December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 33-38.
- "First Interim Report to the President," Devereux C. Josephs (The President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School), January, 1957, No. 4, pp. 55-59.
- Guidance Conference (Sponsored by Central Indiana Branch, American Personnel and Guidance Association and Indiana State Teachers College), December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 33-42.
- "Human Relations in a Second Grade Classroom," Agnes Dodds, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 82-83.
- "New Social Roles for Adolescents," Israel Woronoff, October, 1956, No. 1, pp. 9-10.
- Ninth Indiana Workshop on Teacher Education, "Understanding and Improving Indiana Teacher Certification," January, 1957, No. 4, pp. 49-54.
- "Oklahoma's Fifth-Year Program," James F. Rogers, October, 1956, No. 1, p. 8.
- "Personal-Social Development," Alice Funfar, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 83-85.
- "Plan Your Play—Play Your Plan," Carl E. Bickley, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 88-89.
- "Private and Industrial Counseling," Lowell L. Holmes (Panel Reports—Guidance Conference), December, 1956, No. 3, p. 40.
- "Proposed Industrial Arts Curriculum, Laboratory School, I.S.T.C.," Elmer Ciancone and Braxton Duvall, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 86-88.
- "Reconsidering Music in the Elementary School," Viola Peterson, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 81-82.
- "Rehabilitation Counseling," Durand F. Jacobs (Panel Reports—Guidance Conference), December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 40-41.

- "Reporting to Parents," Virginia Westenberg, Harriet Darrow and Mary Claire Hamrick, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 71-73.
- "Research in the Public Schools," (Editorial), Charles Hardaway, November, 1956, No. 2, p. 15.
- "Room to Spare," Marvin Bell, Marjorie Causey, Elmer Ciancone, Virginia Mitchell and Charles Syester, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 67-69ff.
- "Secondary School Counseling," Earl Pike (Panel Reports—Guidance Conference), December, 1956, No. 3, p. 38.
- "Some Attitudes of Elementary Teachers Toward the Use of Teachers' Aides," Charles Hardaway, November, 1956, No. 2, pp. 20-22.
- "Some Implications of Trends in College Enrollments," Raleigh W. Holmstedt, May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 93-94.
- "Summary Report of the Eighth Annual Conference for Supervising Teachers," May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 105-111.
- "Teacher Tenure in the Reorganized School Districts in Indiana," Fred Swalls, May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 94-95.
- "The Basic Technical Terminology of the Petroleum Industry," Leone Orner, November, 1956, No. 2, pp. 27-28.
- "The Council on Professional Laboratory Experience," Florise Hunsucker, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 74-79.
- "The Development of a Language Laboratory for More Effective Second Language Teaching," Russell McDougal, May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 98-101.
- "The Diagonal Meets at 2:20 Today," Edmund Ford, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 64-67.
- "The Fifth Year in Teacher Education," Elmer J. Clark, May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 95-98.
- "The Individual Conference in Supervision," James J. Jones, October, 1956, No. 1, pp. 10-11.
- "The Laboratory School Safety Patrol Organization and Activities," Virginia L. Mitchell, Myrtle Smith and Charles E. Syester, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 70-71.
- "The Physically Handicapped: Six Years of Progress," Dewey J. Moore, May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 104-105.
- "The Place to Start," (Editorial) Charles Hardaway, October, 1956, No. 1, p. 1.
- "The Research Council," Anne Carle, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 80-81.
- "The Role of the Laboratory School," Harley Lautenschlager, March, 1957, No. 5, p. 63.
- "The Story of Indiana Place-Names," C. H. Handschin, May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 101-104.
- "The Student and His Library," Robert L. Coard, December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 45-46.
- "The World's Great Religions and the High School Student," George Schottenhamel, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 90-92.
- "Tribute to Edwin Nelson Canine," Meribah Clark, January, 1957, No. 4, pp. 59-61.
- "We Now Offer the Master's Degree," A. R. Gaskill, October, 1956, No. 1, pp. 6-8.
- "What Should Teachers Know About the English Language?" Ralph B. Long, January, 1957, No. 4, pp. 47-49.
- "Who Should Build the School Curriculum?" Harold H. Stephenson, December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 43-44.
- "Words and Music," Martha Pearman and Elizabeth Weller, March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 73-74.
- Bonney, Merl E., and Mary Glenn Peery, "An Evaluation of Some Efforts to Improve the Social Adjustment of a Few Selected Second Grade Pupils," November, 1956, No. 2, pp. 16-19.
- Book Reviews, October, 1956, No. 1, pp. 11-12; November, 1956, No. 2, p. 32; January, 1957, No. 4, pp. 61-62; May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 111-114.
- Bordin, Edward S., "Conference Summary," (Guidance Conference), December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 42-43; "Factors Influencing Vocational Choice," December, 1956, No. 3, pp. 33-38.
- Bull, Galen W., "Chemistry and Physics—One Class," March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 89-90.
- Carle, Anne, "The Research Council," March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 80-81.
- Causey, Marjorie and others, "Room to Spare," March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 67-69ff.
- Ciancone, Elmer, and Braxton Duvall, "Proposed Industrial Arts Curriculum, Laboratory School, I.S.T.C.," March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 86-88.
- Ciancone, Elmer and others, "Room to Spare," March, 1957, No. 5, pp. 67-69 ff.
- Clark, Elmer J., "The Fifth Year in Teacher Education," May, 1957, No. 6, pp. 95-98.
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Author Index

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